

Fiber Treating Metabolic Syndrome

Alexis D Stamatikos¹, Farzad Deyhim², Gary A Apgar³, William J Banz^{3*}

¹Department of Nutrition, Hospitality, and Retailing, Texas Tech University, Lubbock, TX, USA

²Department of Human Sciences, Texas A&M University- Kingsville, Kingsville, TX, USA

³Department of Animal Science, Food & Nutrition, Southern Illinois University Carbondale, Carbondale, IL, USA

Abstract

The number of individuals diagnosed with metabolic syndrome has risen dramatically in recent years. Although not a disease itself, metabolic syndrome significantly raises the risk of developing cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus, both considered to be epidemics. Therefore, it is critical to promote aggressive therapies that effectively combat conditions associated with the metabolic syndrome. However, treating metabolic syndrome is complicated due to the complex nature of its pathophysiology coinciding with the many health abnormalities metabolic syndrome is often associated with, including but not limited to, insulin resistance, central obesity, hypertension, and atherogenic dyslipidemia. One promising compound that has been demonstrated to alleviate metabolic syndrome is fiber. The various types of fiber work through multiple mechanisms of action in the human body and can potentially result in weight loss in addition to blood glucose control and the lowering of cholesterol. Therefore, increasing intake of dietary fiber might prevent or even reverse some of the negative health anomalies associated with metabolic syndrome. The purpose of this review is to provide a cursory overview of the core components of metabolic syndrome and address how fiber intake may combat these conditions.

Keywords: Cardiovascular disease; Central obesity; Insulin resistance; Resistant starch; Type 2 diabetes mellitus

Introduction

It has been established that patients diagnosed with metabolic syndrome (MS) have significantly greater incidence of developing type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and cardiovascular disease (CVD) [1-3]. Indeed, diabetes is a nationwide epidemic in the United States affecting nearly 26 million Americans, with 90-95% of these cases being T2DM [4]. The monetary costs for diabetes alone accounts for an estimated 245 billion dollars in the United States annually [5]. CVD is the primary cause of death in people with T2DM [6,7] and ranks number one in fatalities worldwide [8]. Similar to increased incidences of individuals with T2DM, diagnosis of people with MS is steadily rising [9].

It has been proposed that fiber may assist in the regulation of abnormalities that are commonly linked with MS [10-13]. Dietary fiber is capable of a diverse array of positive health effects due to different mechanisms of action in various types of fibers. Ingestion of fiber may have a pronounced effect on combating MS, both directly and indirectly, via influencing physiological pathways that deal with nutrient uptake, energy balance, appetite, satiety, and waste excretion. The purpose of this review is to provide an understanding of the health conditions and risks linked to MS and how dietary fiber may prevent or even reverse some of the health abnormalities associated with MS.

Metabolic Syndrome

While MS is considered to be a relatively new concept, there have traditionally been four main conditions associated with MS; insulin resistance (IR), obesity, hypertension, and dyslipidemia [14]. However, the International Diabetes Federation offered a novel proposition characterizing MS [15,16]. The International Diabetes Federation deemed central obesity (CO) and atherogenic dyslipidemia as core components for the diagnosis of MS and used them to replace obesity and dyslipidemia, respectively [15]. Furthermore, the waist circumference values to diagnose CO for the International Diabetes Federation are race and ethnic specific, which innovatively established unique diagnostic criteria. The International Diabetes Federation also emphasized the important relationship of proinflammatory and prothrombotic states to MS [15]. Though difficult to discern, prothrombosis and systemic inflammation are serious consequences of MS. It has been noted that

both CVD and T2DM are considered to be inflammatory diseases [17, 18] and it is recognized that most cardiovascular events are caused by a thrombus [19]. The latest consensus among MS experts is that proinflammatory and prothrombotic states are prevalent in individuals having metabolic risk factors for MS [20]. It is also important to mention that no single risk factor appears to be most important in terms of mortality [21]. Thus, understanding the pathophysiology of all components plus best ways to treat these conditions and MS as a whole is crucial.

Central Obesity

The International Diabetes Federation declares CO to be the only mandatory criteria for diagnosis of MS [16]. CO is excessive accumulation of visceral adipose tissue. This is often correlated with IR [21-23]. CO may be more detrimental to proper glucose metabolism as overweight or even obese people with proportional body fat do not always show signs of IR [24], while in some cases normal weight individuals with excessive visceral adiposity may display IR [25].

Compared with subcutaneous adipose tissue, visceral adipose tissue is a more active tissue in two distinct ways. First, visceral adipose tissue is more metabolically active than subcutaneous adipose tissue due to increased adrenergic activity as visceral fat has more beta adrenergic receptors and is more sensitive to lipolytic catecholamine effects compared with subcutaneous fat [26-30]. Excess visceral adipose tissue triggers an abundant release of free fatty acids (FFA) that spill into the hepatic portal vein, quickly making their way to the liver and exacerbating IR [31]. Marked increases in FFA elevate triglycerides in

***Corresponding author:** William J Banz, Department of Animal Science, Food & Nutrition, College of Agricultural Sciences, Southern Illinois University Carbondale, Agriculture Building, 1205 Lincoln Drive, Carbondale, Illinois 62901, USA, E-mail: banz@siu.edu

Received August 28, 2013; **Accepted** October 17, 2013; **Published** October 19, 2013

Citation: Stamatikos AD, Deyhim F, Apgar GA, Banz WJ (2013) Fiber Treating Metabolic Syndrome. J Metabolic Syndr 2: 130. doi:10.4172/2167-0943.1000130

Copyright: © 2013 Stamatikos AD, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

the body [32,33], which are one of the main features of atherogenic dyslipidemia [15]. Increases in FFA also reduce insulin clearance [31,34] which is a strong indicator of IR [34]. Second, visceral adipose tissue is more hormonally active compared to subcutaneous adipose tissue. Visceral adipose tissue initiates key inflammatory proteins, namely interleukin-6, tumor necrosis factor alpha, and C-reactive protein, all of which have been linked or associated with IR [35-38].

Insulin Resistance

IR can be simply stated as, "a state where there is a reduced biologic effect for any given concentration of insulin" [39]. IR is believed to be a key player in triggering MS pathogenesis [40]. IR appears to originate from a weakened response to insulin in glucose-responsive cells [41]. More specifically, hyperinsulinemia occurs postprandially when glucose cannot be sufficiently cleared from the bloodstream by myocytes, resulting in de novo lipogenesis and atherogenic dyslipidemia [42]. Hyperinsulinemia causes a subsequent downregulation of insulin receptors, impairing insulin function [43,44]. Consequently, constant long-term hyperinsulinemia intensifies IR and plays a direct role in the development of T2DM [45,46].

Atherogenic Dyslipidemia

Atherogenic dyslipidemia is a critical factor in developing CVD related to MS. While atherogenic dyslipidemia plays a prominent role in the development of atherosclerosis, endothelial dysfunction works alongside atherogenic dyslipidemia to contribute to the development of CVD [47], as endothelial dysfunction also promotes atherosclerotic plaque development [48,49]. This effect may provide to be synergistic in patients with MS, as endothelial dysfunction is predominantly found in this population [50]. Other modes of action exist in MS which directly influence atherogenic dyslipidemia. Elevated FFA, commonly observed as a result from IR, accumulate in the liver causing a high FFA flux. This can result in increased production of very low density lipoproteins, triglycerides, apolipoprotein B, and a reduction in high density lipoproteins [31]. High triglycerides and apolipoprotein B along with low levels of high density lipoproteins are known to be atherogenic [51] and their respective concentrations are used to determine atherogenic dyslipidemia [15].

The negative effects of atherogenic dyslipidemia can be manipulated by hormonal factors. As mentioned earlier, the adipokines interleukin-6 and tumor necrosis factor alpha can be generated from visceral adipose tissue [35-38]. Tumor necrosis factor alpha and interleukin-6 inhibit the secretion of adiponectin, an adipokine that displays anti-atherogenic effects [52,53]. Anti-atherogenic capabilities of adiponectin include inhibition of monocytes attaching to endothelial walls, resulting in down regulation of scavenger receptors which prevents foam cells from changing into macrophages [54]. This lack of protection may increase the susceptibility of atherosclerotic plaque to develop from atherogenic dyslipidemia present in individuals suffering from MS.

Hypertension

Hypertension associated with MS may originate from several participating factors. These factors may include the degree of sympathetic activity within the central nervous system, adjustments in salt sensitivity and management in the kidneys, endothelin-1 mediated vasoconstriction, and angiotensin II [55]. Moreover, increases in FFA have been shown to impair vascular reactivity in humans [56] which is detrimental to sustaining normal blood pressure. CO has also been considered to influence hypertension, being an even stronger risk factor than general obesity [57]. Visceral adipose tissue secretes more angiotensinogen than subcutaneous fat [58,59] which may increase

blood pressure via altering the renin-angiotensin system through increasing this system's main substrate (angiotensinogen) resulting in vasoconstriction.

Normal insulin signaling is critical in maintaining normal blood pressure and alterations in insulin signaling may result in hypertension [57]. Insulin is known to increase the release of nitric oxide which causes vasodilatation [60]. The end result of this is a potential drop in blood pressure. However, as seen with IR, disturbances to the endothelium may evolve which might prevent an insulin induced-nitric oxide vasodilatation effect [61], possibly resulting in hypertension. The consequences of both IR and hypertension is thought to be particularly detrimental to health and markedly increases the chance of developing CVD compared to just suffering from one of these ailments [62].

Systemic Inflammation

There appears to be a strong relationship between MS and inflammation [63]. The type of inflammation commonly seen in patients suffering from MS is a chronic, low-grade inflammation coined systemic inflammation. Indeed, adipocytes are able to produce adipokines that may lead to a proinflammatory state [64]. Many different adipokines are quite capable of producing systemic inflammation. However, the adipokines interleukin-6, C-reactive protein, and tumor necrosis factor alpha in particular show extensive systemic inflammation exacerbation, as these adipokines are also cytokines with acute phase and/or immune responses as their underlying purpose/operation in the body. Interleukin-6 can initiate systemic inflammation on its own as well as intensify systemic inflammation by augmenting secretion of interleukin-1 and tumor necrosis factor alpha [65]. High levels of C-reactive protein have been linked to T2DM and CVD in addition to being a strong marker for systemic inflammation [66]. Though it has been suggested that IR amplifies the state of proinflammation with systemic inflammation as the end outcome [31, 55], there are also hypotheses supporting the notion that IR can result from systemic inflammation [67,68].

Prothrombosis

A recent concern of MS is the relationship with prothrombosis and increased CVD risk. In a prothrombotic state, a dangerous clot can form if a vulnerable plaque ruptures [69]. Fibrinolysis impairment may cause vascular damage and initiate obstructions of the circulatory system inherently increasing CVD risk [70-75]. Prothrombosis in people with MS may be due to the negative synergy associated to smaller amounts of tissue plasminogen activator secreted in correlation with higher concentrations of the adipokine plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 being secreted from the outcome of insulin resistance and glucose intolerance [70-73,75]. The enzyme tissue plasminogen activator catalyzes the conversion of plasminogen to plasmin, an enzyme essential to fibrinolysis, while plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 is the primary inhibitor of tissue plasminogen activator. If plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 and tissue plasminogen activator levels attributed to prothrombosis remain unchanged, repeated bouts of unwanted coagulation may ensue, which when combined with atherosclerosis [70-76], increases the chance of a cardiovascular event. While prothrombosis is a major risk factor for CVD, as a thrombus is virtually considered a requisite for the most fatal type of CVD (i.e. myocardial infarction), prothrombotic states shouldn't raise incidence for T2DM. Other conditions of MS though, such as CO, IR, and systemic inflammation, increase the risk of both CVD and T2DM. Nevertheless, all conditions of MS should be taken seriously and attempted to be alleviated as they are thought to work in synergistic fashion to markedly increase incidence of T2DM and/or CVD.

Fiber

Dietary fiber comes from a variety of food sources, in particular fruits, vegetables, legumes, nuts, and whole grains. A common method of grouping fiber types is determining their solubility in water. Soluble fibers dissolve in water while insoluble fibers do not [77]. An approximate ratio for many fibrous foods is 2/3 of insoluble fiber to every 1/3 of soluble fiber [78]. The third type of fiber, named Resistant Starch (RS), comprises of either starch and/or products resulting from starch digestion in humans bypassing digestion that would normally occur in the small intestine consequently entering the large bowel [79]. It should be noted RS only comes from starch that is not fully digested [80].

Reputable health organizations have recognized fiber as an invaluable nutrient. Both the World Health Organization and World Cancer Research Fund have emphasized that dietary fiber can help prevent obesity and weight gain [81,82]. Additionally, a joint consultation on human nutrition by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and World Health Organization previously explained that a significant advance in realizing key vital health attributes of carbohydrates in the past twenty years has been due to discovering RS [83]. Furthermore, the National Academy of Sciences Food and Nutrition Board acknowledged RS as a beneficial carbohydrate [84].

Substantial evidence indicates fiber may contain numerous factors which promote many distinct health benefits [85]. Moreover, it appears that fiber consumption and markers of metabolic syndrome are inversely correlated with one another [86]. Additionally, it has been acknowledged that over 90% of the adult population fails to meet adequate intake recommendations for fiber [87]. Therefore, increasing fiber intake may prove to be beneficial for the vast majority of adults suffering from MS.

Appetite Control, Satiety and Positive Body Composition Change

Dietary fiber may provide satiety [88,89] resulting in a decreased caloric intake and improved weight loss. Achieving weight loss through a hypocaloric has shown to effectively combat metabolic syndrome by reducing central obesity, blood pressure, fasting glucose and insulin, triglycerides, C-reactive protein, low density lipoproteins, and increasing high density lipoproteins and insulin sensitivity [90]. Soluble fibers capable of holding large volumes of water and able to create viscous gels within the gastrointestinal tract have shown to temporarily suspend gastric emptying into the duodenum, slowing down digestion and providing a longer duration of satiety after meals [91,92].

Insoluble fibers can control appetite by acting as a powerful bulking agent. Insoluble fibers are extremely resilient to fermentation by bacteria inside the colon [93] which may increase fecal matter both directly and indirectly. Insoluble fibers which are excreted through the colon may take-up other fermentable carbohydrates with them as well, allowing them to pass the fermentation process and be excreted as waste instead [93]. This bulking effect in turn significantly increases gastrointestinal load which may promote satiety and create a feeling of fullness. Research has also shown insoluble fiber assists in reducing overall caloric consumption shortly after meals [94] as well as promoting weight loss [95,96].

RS starch may also promote satiety and curb hunger. A study analyzed rodent brains to evaluate possible changes when being fed either a high RS diet or a low RS diet [97]. Rodents fed the high RS diet displayed a state similar to a satiated animal in hypothalamic regions of

the brain while the low RS diet showed a fasted state instead, suggesting RS as a factor in controlling hunger [97].

Increasing fiber intake may also have a profound impact on positively influencing body composition changes, too. Positive changes in body composition may aid in the prevention or treatment of metabolic syndrome as increased skeletal muscle mass may have protective qualities against MS [98]. Rodents fed a low or high RS chow had substantial differences in body composition, favoring the anti-obesity effects of high RS intake [97,99]. While mean body weights were comparable among both groups, lean body mass was higher in the high RS group. The high RS group also exhibited lowers visceral, subcutaneous, and intra hepatocellular fat content when compared to the low RS group [97,99]. The lower visceral fat level observed in these studies is of utmost importance regarding MS since excessive visceral fat causes CO. Thus, possibly changing body composition through decreasing visceral adipose tissue by consuming RS may treat CO. By reducing CO through the ingestion of RS, other conditions of MS may be alleviated as well, such as IR and systemic inflammation, which may effectively combat MS.

Glycemic Control

Dietary fiber has been shown to effectively regulate both IR and T2DM [100]. Fiber has the unique ability to adsorb certain molecules within the gastrointestinal tract. Enzymes involved with carbohydrate digestion may be affected by viscous fibers creating a wall that hinders their action as a catalyst [101]. Fiber viscosity is particularly important by temporarily suspending glucose assimilation, slowing transfer time, lowering blood glucose concentrations, and having a positive influence upon hormone responses, such as insulin and glucagon-like peptide 1, ultimately influencing nutrient uptake [102-105]. In addition to these unique features, data from epidemiological studies discovered a inverse correlation with insoluble fiber intake and developing T2DM [106,107].

RS can lengthen time duration of glucose entering the bloodstream, which has a potent, direct effect on regulating blood glucose. RS slows the rate at which glucose reaches the blood which has been observed *in vitro* [108] and *in vivo* in humans [109]. Prolonging glucose into the bloodstream may act synergistically by positively influencing body composition and satiety by causing less insulin to be secreted and increasing the likelihood of lipolysis in addition to controlling hunger and maintaining normal body weight [110,111]. This has been previously substantiated from clinical research performed comparing two similar foods originating from potato starch [112, 113]. In these studies, one type of potato starch was raw and contained RS but the other type of potato starch was pre-gelatinized and did not contain any RS. The RS group from the first study resulted in significantly lower blood insulin levels plus better postprandial satiety than their non-RS counterparts [112]. Lipolysis was also demonstrated to be higher in the RS group compared to the non-RS group [113], which may indicate a shift in fatty acids utilized as an efficient energy source instead of used for triglyceride synthesis and storage.

RS may also assist in blood glucose regulation through preventing IR via manipulating fat location and adipocyte size in the body. In two rodent studies previously mentioned [97,99], a ratio of insulin to glucose was higher in the low RS group compared to their high RS counterparts, suggesting an IR state. It was also noted that the low RS set had significantly higher levels of intrahepatocellular fat [97,99]. It may be plausible to assume that the higher intrahepatocellular fat content may have initiated IR displayed in these studies. Surmounting evidence has observed positive correlations between intrahepatocellular fat and IR, with speculation that hepatic steatosis may play a chief role in the

pathogenesis of IR [114,115]. Additionally, since larger adipocyte size is known to reduce insulin sensitivity [116], this may partially attribute to the insulin resistant states observed, as the low RS diet resulted in a considerably larger adipocyte size in comparison to rats fed a high RS diet [97]. Thus, it may be possible for a type of synergistic ability to occur through the consumption of various fibers resulting in decreasing adipocyte size, hepatic steatosis, and blood glucose concentrations, ultimately improving IR and preventing the progression of T2DM.

Atherogenic Dyslipidemia Treatment & Cardiovascular Disease Prevention

Positive lipid alterations known to lessen the chance of CVD have been observed with fiber consumption [117]. Soluble fibers as well as the insoluble fibers such as lignin and specific types of chitosan are capable of adsorbing bile acids, fatty acids, and cholesterol, with these fiber attached molecules likely passing the small intestine and the end result being broken down by bacteria inside the large intestine or simply excreted with feces, resulting in less overall cholesterol and bile acids inside the body to be absorbed by the liver. Lowered levels of cholesterol within the liver may initiate low density lipoproteins (LDL) to be cleared from the blood. Inadequate amounts of bile acids absorbed by the liver triggers the production of new bile acids from the utilization of cholesterol. Both of these effects decrease serum cholesterol [118]. Short chain fatty acids (SCFA), byproducts of fiber fermentation in the colon has also been shown to lower cholesterol [119,120]. The mechanism of action, that SCFA decrease cholesterol is via reducing cholesterol synthesis rate [119]. Fiber also has the ability to influence the atherogenic dyslipidemia markers triglycerides and apolipoprotein B concentrations in the body as well. Evidence has indicated soluble fiber capable of lowering both triglyceride and apolipoprotein B levels [121]. Though the improvement of all conditions of MS is critical to health and well-being, treating atherogenic dyslipidemia and lessening the chance of CVD is of utmost importance in reducing mortality in patients suffering from MS, as not only is CVD more prevalent in individuals with MS but more people with MS die from CVD as well [122,123].

Final Remarks

Fiber has been previously recognized as a potential candidate to assist in treating MS [10-13]. An intake of a variety of fibers may be the most appropriate way of combating MS versus just increasing one class of dietary fiber. Diets high in fiber may also have therapeutic capabilities for alleviating certain MS amolies similar to drug treatment. In particular, a fiber rich diet known as the dietary portfolio or portfolio diet, but colloqually called the "Jenkins diet" has been shown to lower cholesterol as effectively as statin therapy in healthy adults suffering from hyperlipidemia [124]. Since increasing fiber intake may preclude medication, is non-invasive, and is only counterproductive at very high levels [125,126], it may be wise to consume a high fiber diet. Fiber from foods may be a better approach to obtaining daily fiber rather than from supplementation. Aside from the higher nutrient profile fiber rich foods display when compared to fiber supplements, it has been projected that increasing fiber consumption via consuming whole grains, fruits, vegetables, and legumes would significantly reduce obesity in industrialized nations [127].

Consumption of dietary fibers causes an array of different biochemical reactions in line with the kind of fiber being ingested. Therefore, this acknowledgment should be incorporated into treatment of MS as well. It is also imperative to recognize fibers that promote health benefits by decreasing T2DM and CVD risk, as these are the two diseases that are significantly increased in people who have MS [1-

3]. For example, whole grain intake is correlated with lowered risk of T2DM, heart disease, and stroke [128]. Evidence supports the notion that the lower whole grain consumption is in populations, the rate of incidence rises for individuals developing MS [129,130]. Whole grains are known to contain ample amounts of dietary fibers [131]. Whole grains may effectively alleviate MS by promoting satiety and weight loss primarily from the mid-section, improve blood glucose, lipid, and insulin levels, and lower blood pressure and inflammation [132-138].

In general, soluble fiber may be able to positively alter blood lipids [139]. Specific types of soluble fiber though may have an even more prominent effect on other conditions of metabolic syndrome, such as IR, hypertension, systemic inflammation, and oxidative stress [121,140] in addition to the benefits upon plasma cholesterol and triglyceride levels [121]. Cereal fiber is another type of fiber that appears very promising with the intent of preventing MS [130]. Cereal fiber intake coincides with decreasing the chance of developing T2DM [141-145] as well as lowering CVD risks [107]. Also, raising cereal fiber consumption in the diet enhances insulin sensitivity [146].

Future studies are needed to discover exactly which fibrous components display positive effects upon the treatment of MS, as well as the ones which may cause negative conditions. It has already been suggested that fiber may increase prothrombosis [147-150], but more recent literature contests this [151]. Unfortunately, data in pertinence to this topic is brief and anachronous in relation to MS. Future studies should try to determine whether fiber increases blood coagulation or not. Furthermore, investigations should be performed to understand both the direct and indirect mechanisms of action these fiber components have relating to the pathophysiology of MS. It certainly should not be ignored that a higher fiber diet may result in notable weight loss, which may also alleviate conditions of MS. Therefore, until clinical trials are conducted that actually demonstrate a causal inference regarding fiber preventing and/or treating MS independent of other factors (e.g. weight loss), caution should be exercised. If however certain components of fiber do indeed have a profound impact on alleviating certain conditions of MS, then extraction of these substances for medicinal and/or supplementation purposes may in fact be applied for use in the future of individuals suffering from MS. Nevertheless, if this were employed into modern practice one day, a high intake of whole grains, fruits, vegetables, nuts, seeds, and legumes would still be commended for the many numerous health benefits they provide other than their respected fiber contents.

Acknowledgement

A majority of this manuscript was completed when Alexis Stamatikos was a graduate student for Dr. William Banz at Southern Illinois University Carbondale.

References

1. Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ (2005) The metabolic syndrome. *Lancet* 365: 1415-1428.
2. Zimmet P, Alberti KG, Shaw J (2001) Global and societal implications of the diabetes epidemic. *Nature* 414: 782-787.
3. Ballantyne CM, Hoogeveen RC, McNeill AM, Heiss G, Schmidt MI, et al. (2008) Metabolic syndrome risk for cardiovascular disease and diabetes in the ARIC study. *Int J Obes (Lond)* 32 Suppl 2: S21-24.
4. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2011) National diabetes fact sheet: national estimates and general information on diabetes and prediabetes in the United States, 2011. US Department of Health and Human Services 2011.
5. American Diabetes Association (2013) Economic costs of diabetes in the U.S. in 2012. *Diabetes Care* 36: 1033-1046.
6. Laakso M (2010) Cardiovascular disease in type 2 diabetes from population to

- man to mechanisms: the Kelly West Award Lecture 2008. *Diabetes Care* 33: 442-449.
7. Laakso M (2001) Cardiovascular disease in type 2 diabetes: challenge for treatment and prevention. *J Intern Med* 249: 225-235.
 8. World Health Organization (2011) Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2010. World Health Organization, Geneva.
 9. Mozumdar A, Liguori G (2011) Persistent increase of prevalence of metabolic syndrome among U.S. adults: NHANES III to NHANES 1999-2006. *Diabetes Care* 34: 216-219.
 10. Aleixandre A, Miguel M (2008) Dietary fiber in the prevention and treatment of metabolic syndrome: a review. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 48: 905-912.
 11. Davy BM, Melby CL (2003) The effect of fiber-rich carbohydrates on features of Syndrome X. *J Am Diet Assoc* 103: 86-96.
 12. Delzenne NM, Cani PD (2005) A place for dietary fibre in the management of the metabolic syndrome. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care* 8: 636-640.
 13. Giacosa A, Rondanelli M (2010) The right fiber for the right disease: an update on the psyllium seed husk and the metabolic syndrome. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 44 Suppl 1: S58-60.
 14. Day C (2007) Metabolic syndrome, or What you will: definitions and epidemiology. *Diab Vasc Dis Res* 4: 32-38.
 15. Alberti KG, Zimmet P, Shaw J (2006) Metabolic syndrome—a new world-wide definition. A Consensus Statement from the International Diabetes Federation. *Diabet Med* 23: 469-480.
 16. Alberti KG, Zimmet P, Shaw J; IDF Epidemiology Task Force Consensus Group (2005) The metabolic syndrome—a new worldwide definition. *Lancet* 366: 1059-1062.
 17. Dandona P, Aljada A, Chaudhuri A, Mohanty P, Garg R (2005) Metabolic syndrome: a comprehensive perspective based on interactions between obesity, diabetes, and inflammation. *Circulation* 111: 1448-1454.
 18. Libby P (2006) Inflammation and cardiovascular disease mechanisms. *Am J Clin Nutr* 83: 456S-460S.
 19. Mackman N (2008) Triggers, targets and treatments for thrombosis. *Nature* 451: 914-918.
 20. Alberti KG, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ, Cleeman JI, et al. (2009) Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome: a joint interim statement of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American Heart Association; World Heart Federation; International Atherosclerosis Society; and International Association for the Study of Obesity. *Circulation* 120: 1640-1645.
 21. Kuk JL, Ardern CI (2010) Age and sex differences in the clustering of metabolic syndrome factors: association with mortality risk. *Diabetes Care* 33: 2457-2461.
 22. Lebovitz HE, Banerji MA (2005) Point: visceral adiposity is causally related to insulin resistance. *Diabetes Care* 28: 2322-2325.
 23. Preis SR, Massaro JM, Robins SJ, Hoffmann U, Vasan RS, et al. (2010) Abdominal subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissue and insulin resistance in the Framingham heart study. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 18: 2191-2198.
 24. Reaven G (2005) All obese individuals are not created equal: insulin resistance is the major determinant of cardiovascular disease in overweight/obese individuals. *Diab Vasc Dis Res* 2: 105-112.
 25. Katsuki A, Sumida Y, Urakawa H, Gabazza EC, Murahima S, et al. (2003) Increased visceral fat and serum levels of triglyceride are associated with insulin resistance in Japanese metabolically obese, normal weight subjects with normal glucose tolerance. *Diabetes Care* 26: 2341-2344.
 26. Arner P, Hellström L, Wahrenberg H, Brönnegård M (1990) Beta-adrenoceptor expression in human fat cells from different regions. *J Clin Invest* 86: 1595-1600.
 27. Hellmér J, Marcus C, Sonnenfeld T, Arner P (1992) Mechanisms for differences in lipolysis between human subcutaneous and omental fat cells. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 75: 15-20.
 28. Imbeault P, Couillard C, Tremblay A, Després JP, Mauriège P (2000) Reduced alpha(2)-adrenergic sensitivity of subcutaneous abdominal adipocytes as a modulator of fasting and postprandial triglyceride levels in men. *J Lipid Res* 41: 1367-1375.
 29. Krief S, Lönnqvist F, Raimbault S, Baude B, Van Spronsen A, et al. (1993) Tissue distribution of beta 3-adrenergic receptor mRNA in man. *J Clin Invest* 91: 344-349.
 30. Rebuffé-Scrive M, Andersson B, Olbe L, Björntorp P (1989) Metabolism of adipose tissue in intraabdominal depots of nonobese men and women. *Metabolism* 38: 453-458.
 31. Avramoglu RK, Basciano H, Adeli K (2006) Lipid and lipoprotein dysregulation in insulin resistant states. *Clin Chim Acta* 368: 1-19.
 32. Oakes ND, Cooney GJ, Camilleri S, Chisholm DJ, Kraegen EW (1997) Mechanisms of liver and muscle insulin resistance induced by chronic high-fat feeding. *Diabetes* 46: 1768-1774.
 33. Reshef L, Olswang Y, Cassuto H, Blum B, Croniger CM, et al. (2003) Glyceroneogenesis and the triglyceride/fatty acid cycle. *J Biol Chem* 278: 30413-30416.
 34. Valera Mora ME, Scarfone A, Calvani M, Greco AV, Mingrone G (2003) Insulin clearance in obesity. *J Am Coll Nutr* 22: 487-493.
 35. Matsuzawa Y (2006) The metabolic syndrome and adipocytokines. *FEBS Lett* 580: 2917-2921.
 36. Natali A, Toschi E, Baldeweg S, Ciociaro D, Favilla S, et al. (2006) Clustering of insulin resistance with vascular dysfunction and low-grade inflammation in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes* 55: 1133-1140.
 37. Pickup JC, Mattock MB, Chusney GD, Burt D (1997) NIDDM as a disease of the innate immune system: association of acute-phase reactants and interleukin-6 with metabolic syndrome X. *Diabetologia* 40: 1286-1292.
 38. Sonnenberg GE, Krakower GR, Kissebah AH (2004) A novel pathway to the manifestations of metabolic syndrome. *Obes Res* 12: 180-186.
 39. Wallace TM, Matthews DR (2002) The assessment of insulin resistance in man. *Diabet Med* 19: 527-534.
 40. Hu G, Qiao Q, Tuomilehto J, Eliasson M, Feskens EJ, et al. (2004) Plasma insulin and cardiovascular mortality in non-diabetic European men and women: a meta-analysis of data from eleven prospective studies. *Diabetologia* 47: 1245-1256.
 41. Reaven GM (1988) Banting lecture 1988. Role of insulin resistance in human disease. *Diabetes* 37: 1595-1607.
 42. Petersen KF, Dufour S, Savage DB, Bilz S, Solomon G, et al. (2007) The role of skeletal muscle insulin resistance in the pathogenesis of the metabolic syndrome. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 104: 12587-12594.
 43. Patti ME, Kahn CR (1996) Lessons from transgenic and knockout animals about noninsulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 7: 311-319.
 44. Suagee JK, Corl BA, Hulver MW, McCutcheon LJ, Geor RJ (2011) Effects of hyperinsulinemia on glucose and lipid transporter expression in insulin-sensitive horses. *Domest Anim Endocrinol* 40: 173-181.
 45. White MF (2003) Insulin signaling in health and disease. *Science* 302: 1710-1711.
 46. Shanik MH, Xu Y, Skrha J, Dankner R, Zick Y, et al. (2008) Insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia: is hyperinsulinemia the cart or the horse? *Diabetes Care* 31 Suppl 2: S262-268.
 47. Huang PL (2009) A comprehensive definition for metabolic syndrome. *Dis Model Mech* 2: 231-237.
 48. Jambrik Z, Venneri L, Varga A, Rigo F, Borges A, et al. (2004) Peripheral vascular endothelial function testing for the diagnosis of coronary artery disease. *Am Heart J* 148: 684-689.
 49. Widlansky ME, Gokce N, Keaney JF Jr, Vita JA (2003) The clinical implications of endothelial dysfunction. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 42: 1149-1160.
 50. Fornoni A, Raij L (2005) Metabolic syndrome and endothelial dysfunction. *Curr Hypertens Rep* 7: 88-95.
 51. Brunzell JD, Ayyobi AF (2003) Dyslipidemia in the metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Am J Med* 115 Suppl 8A: 24S-28S.
 52. Bruun JM, Lihn AS, Verdich C, Pedersen SB, Toubro S, et al. (2003) Regulation of adiponectin by adipose tissue-derived cytokines: in vivo and in vitro investigations in humans. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 285: E527-533.
 53. Ohashi K, Ouchi N, Matsuzawa Y (2012) Anti-inflammatory and anti-atherogenic properties of adiponectin. *Biochimie* 94: 2137-2142.
 54. Ouchi N, Kihara S, Arita Y, Maeda K, Kuriyama H, et al. (1999) Novel modulator for endothelial adhesion molecules: adipocyte-derived plasma protein adiponectin. *Circulation* 100: 2473-2476.

55. Scott CL (2003) Diagnosis, prevention, and intervention for the metabolic syndrome. *Am J Cardiol* 92: 35i-42i.
56. Ferrannini E, Buzzigoli G, Bonadonna R, Giorico MA, Oleggini M, et al. (1987) Insulin resistance in essential hypertension. *N Engl J Med* 317: 350-357.
57. Stamatikos A, Deyhim F (2012) Assessing Indicators of Central Obesity as Hypertensive Risk Factors. *Journal of Student Research* 1:11-8.
58. Dusserre E, Moulin P, Vidal H (2000) Differences in mRNA expression of the proteins secreted by the adipocytes in human subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissues. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1500: 88-96.
59. Karlsson C, Lindell K, Ottosson M, Sjöström L, Carlsson B, et al. (1998) Human adipose tissue expresses angiotensinogen and enzymes required for its conversion to angiotensin II. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 83: 3925-3929.
60. Steinberg HO, Brechtel G, Johnson A, Fineberg N, Baron AD (1994) Insulin-mediated skeletal muscle vasodilation is nitric oxide dependent. A novel action of insulin to increase nitric oxide release. *J Clin Invest* 94: 1172-1179.
61. Tooke JE, Hannemann MM (2000) Adverse endothelial function and the insulin resistance syndrome. *J Intern Med* 247: 425-431.
62. McLaughlin T, Reaven G (2000) Insulin resistance and hypertension. Patients in double jeopardy for cardiovascular disease. *Geriatrics* 55: 28-32, 35.
63. Sutherland JP, McKinley B, Eckel RH (2004) The metabolic syndrome and inflammation. *Metab Syndr Relat Disord* 2: 82-104.
64. Trayhurn P, Wood IS (2004) Adipokines: inflammation and the pleiotropic role of white adipose tissue. *Br J Nutr* 92: 347-355.
65. Yudkin JS, Kumari M, Humphries SE, Mohamed-Ali V (2000) Inflammation, obesity, stress and coronary heart disease: is interleukin-6 the link? *Atherosclerosis* 148: 209-214.
66. Pearson TA, Mensah GA, Alexander RW, Anderson JL, Cannon RO III, Criqui M, et al. (2003) Markers of inflammation and cardiovascular disease: application to clinical and public health practice: A statement for healthcare professionals from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and the American Heart Association. *Circulation* 107: 499-511.
67. Olefsky JM, Glass CK (2010) Macrophages, inflammation, and insulin resistance. *Annu Rev Physiol* 72: 219-246.
68. Shoelson SE, Lee J, Goldfine AB (2006) Inflammation and insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest* 116: 1793-1801.
69. Grundy SM (2011) The metabolic syndrome. In: *Atlas of Atherosclerosis and Metabolic Syndrome*. (5th Edn.), Springer p.1-26.
70. Juhan-Vague I, Alessi MC, Vague P (1996) Thrombogenic and fibrinolytic factors and cardiovascular risk in non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *Ann Med* 28: 371-380.
71. Panahloo A, Yudkin JS (1996) Diminished fibrinolysis in diabetes mellitus and its implication for diabetic vascular disease. *Coron Artery Dis* 7: 723-731.
72. Schneider DJ, Nordt TK, Sobel BE (1993) Attenuated fibrinolysis and accelerated atherogenesis in type II diabetic patients. *Diabetes* 42: 1-7.
73. Sobel BE, Woodcock-Mitchell J, Schneider DJ, Holt RE, Marutsuka K, et al. (1998) Increased plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1 in coronary artery atherectomy specimens from type 2 diabetic compared with nondiabetic patients: a potential factor predisposing to thrombosis and its persistence. *Circulation* 97: 2213-2221.
74. Sobel BE (1999) Insulin resistance and thrombosis: a cardiologist's view. *Am J Cardiol* 84: 37J-41J.
75. Sobel BE (1999) The potential influence of insulin and plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1 on the formation of vulnerable atherosclerotic plaques associated with type 2 diabetes. *Proc Assoc Am Physicians* 111: 313-318.
76. Juhan-Vague I, Alessi MC, Vague P (1991) Increased plasma plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 levels. A possible link between insulin resistance and atherothrombosis. *Diabetologia* 34: 457-462.
77. Brown L, Rosner B, Willett WW, Sacks FM (1999) Cholesterol-lowering effects of dietary fiber: a meta-analysis. *Am J Clin Nutr* 69: 30-42.
78. Cummings JH (1981) Short chain fatty acids in the human colon. *Gut* 22: 763-779.
79. Asp NG, Tovar J, Bairoliya S (1992) Determination of resistant starch in vitro with three different methods, and in vivo with a rat model. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 46 Suppl 2: S117-119.
80. Truswell AS (1992) Glycaemic index of foods. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 46 Suppl 2: S91-101.
81. Branca F, Nikogosian H, Lobstein T (2007) The challenge of obesity in the WHO European Region and the strategies for response: summary. World Health Organization, Europe.
82. World Cancer Research Fund, American Institute for Cancer Research (2007) Food, nutrition, physical activity, and the prevention of cancer: a global perspective. Amer Inst for Cancer Research.
83. de Haen H (1998) Carbohydrates in Human Nutrition, FAO Food & Nutrition Paper 66. A Joint FAO/WHO Expert Consultation on Human Nutrition.
84. Food and Nutrition Board (2002) Dietary Reference Intakes for Energy, Carbohydrate, Fiber, Fat, Protein, and Amino Acids. The National Academies, Washington DC, USA.
85. Anderson JW, Baird P, Davis RH Jr, Ferreri S, Knudtson M, et al. (2009) Health benefits of dietary fiber. *Nutr Rev* 67: 188-205.
86. Wirfält E, Hedblad B, Gullberg B, Mattisson I, Andrén C, et al. (2001) Food patterns and components of the metabolic syndrome in men and women: a cross-sectional study within the Malmö Diet and Cancer cohort. *Am J Epidemiol* 154: 1150-1159.
87. Fulgoni VL III, Liska DJ, Almedia NG, O'Neil CE, Nicklas TA (2010) Modeling dietary fiber intakes in U.S. adults in National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2003-2006. *FASEB J* 24.
88. Howarth NC, Saltzman E, Roberts SB (2001) Dietary fiber and weight regulation. *Nutr Rev* 59: 129-139.
89. Pereira MA, Ludwig DS (2001) Dietary fiber and body-weight regulation. Observations and mechanisms. *Pediatr Clin North Am* 48: 969-980.
90. Straznicky NE, Lambert EA, Lambert GW, Masuo K, Esler MD, et al. (2005) Effects of dietary weight loss on sympathetic activity and cardiac risk factors associated with the metabolic syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 90: 5998-6005.
91. Brownlee IA (2011) The physiological roles of dietary fibre. *Food Hydrocolloids* 25: 238-250.
92. Chutkan R, Fahey G, Wright WL, McRorie J (2012) Viscous versus nonviscous soluble fiber supplements: mechanisms and evidence for fiber-specific health benefits. *J Am Acad Nurse Pract* 24: 476-487.
93. Jenkins DJ, Vuksan V, Kendall CW, Würsch P, Jeffcoat R, et al. (1998) Physiological effects of resistant starches on fecal bulk, short chain fatty acids, blood lipids and glycemic index. *J Am Coll Nutr* 17: 609-616.
94. Samra RA, Anderson GH (2007) Insoluble cereal fiber reduces appetite and short-term food intake and glycemic response to food consumed 75 min later by healthy men. *Am J Clin Nutr* 86: 972-979.
95. Turner-McGrievy GM, Jenkins DJ, Barnard ND, Cohen J, Gloede L, et al. (2011) Decreases in dietary glycemic index are related to weight loss among individuals following therapeutic diets for type 2 diabetes. *J Nutr* 141: 1469-1474.
96. Winreich J, Pedersen O, Dinesen K (1977) Role of bran in normals. Serum levels of cholesterol, triglyceride, calcium and total 3 alpha-hydroxycholeonic acid, and intestinal transit time. *Acta Med Scand* 202: 125-130.
97. So PW, Yu WS, Kuo YT, Wasserfall C, Goldstone AP, et al. (2007) Impact of resistant starch on body fat patterning and central appetite regulation. *PLoS One* 2: e1309.
98. Atlantis E, Martin SA, Haren MT, Taylor AW, Wittert GA; Members of the Florey Adelaide Male Ageing Study (2009) Inverse associations between muscle mass, strength, and the metabolic syndrome. *Metabolism* 58: 1013-1022.
99. Pawlak DB, Kushner JA, Ludwig DS (2004) Effects of dietary glycaemic index on adiposity, glucose homeostasis, and plasma lipids in animals. *Lancet* 364: 778-785.
100. Costacou T, Mayer-Davis EJ (2003) Nutrition and prevention of type 2 diabetes. *Annu Rev Nutr* 23: 147-170.
101. Isaksson G, Lundquist I, Ihse I (1982) Effect of dietary fiber on pancreatic enzyme activity in vitro. *Gastroenterology* 82: 918-924.
102. Guerciolini R, Radu-Radulescu L, Boldrin M, Dallas J, Moore R (2001) Comparative evaluation of fecal fat excretion induced by orlistat and chitosan. *Obes Res* 9: 364-367.
103. Jie Z, Bang-Yao L, Ming-Jie X, Hai-Wei L, Zu-Kang Z, et al. (2000) Studies on the effects of polydextrose intake on physiologic functions in Chinese people. *Am J Clin Nutr* 72: 1503-1509.

104. Singla AK, Chawla M (2001) Chitosan: some pharmaceutical and biological aspects—an update. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 53: 1047-1067.
105. Wuolijoki E, Hirvelä T, Ylitalo P (1999) Decrease in serum LDL cholesterol with microcrystalline chitosan. *Methods Find Exp Clin Pharmacol* 21: 357-361.
106. Meyer KA, Kushi LH, Jacobs DR Jr, Slavin J, Sellers TA, et al. (2000) Carbohydrates, dietary fiber, and incident type 2 diabetes in older women. *Am J Clin Nutr* 71: 921-930.
107. Montonen J, Knekt P, Järvinen R, Aromaa A, Reunanen A (2003) Whole-grain and fiber intake and the incidence of type 2 diabetes. *Am J Clin Nutr* 77: 622-629.
108. Ou S, Kwok K, Li Y, Fu L (2001) In vitro study of possible role of dietary fiber in lowering postprandial serum glucose. *J Agric Food Chem* 49: 1026-1029.
109. Behall KM, Hallfrisch J (2002) Plasma glucose and insulin reduction after consumption of breads varying in amylose content. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 56: 913-920.
110. Brand-Miller JC, Holt SH, Pawlak DB, McMillan J (2002) Glycemic index and obesity. *Am J Clin Nutr* 76: 281S-5S.
111. Ludwig DS (2000) Dietary glycemic index and obesity. *J Nutr* 130: 280S-283S.
112. Raben A, Tagliabue A, Christensen NJ, Madsen J, Holst JJ, et al. (1994) Resistant starch: the effect on postprandial glycemia, hormonal response, and satiety. *Am J Clin Nutr* 60: 544-551.
113. Tagliabue A, Raben A, Heijnen ML, Deurenberg P, Pasquali E, et al. (1995) The effect of raw potato starch on energy expenditure and substrate oxidation. *Am J Clin Nutr* 61: 1070-1075.
114. Nagle CA, Klett EL, Coleman RA (2009) Hepatic triacylglycerol accumulation and insulin resistance. *J Lipid Res* 50 Suppl: S74-79.
115. Utzschneider KM, Kahn SE (2006) Review: The role of insulin resistance in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 91: 4753-4761.
116. Unger RH (2003) Lipid overload and overflow: metabolic trauma and the metabolic syndrome. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 14: 398-403.
117. Fernandez ML (2001) Soluble fiber and nondigestible carbohydrate effects on plasma lipids and cardiovascular risk. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 12: 35-40.
118. Gropper SS, Smith JL (2012) Advanced nutrition and human metabolism. (6th Edn.), Wadsworth Cengage Learning, Belmont, CA, USA. p.111-136.
119. Hara H, Haga S, Aoyama Y, Kiriya S (1999) Short-chain fatty acids suppress cholesterol synthesis in rat liver and intestine. *J Nutr* 129: 942-948.
120. Hara H, Haga S, Kasai T, Kiriya S (1998) Fermentation products of sugar-beet fiber by cecal bacteria lower plasma cholesterol concentration in rats. *J Nutr* 128: 688-693.
121. Sola R, Bruckert E, Valls RM, Narejos S, Luque X, et al. (2010) Soluble fibre (Plantago ovata husk) reduces plasma low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, triglycerides, insulin, oxidised LDL and systolic blood pressure in hypercholesterolaemic patients: A randomised trial. *Atherosclerosis* 211: 630-637.
122. Gami AS, Witt BJ, Howard DE, Erwin PJ, Gami LA, et al. (2007) Metabolic syndrome and risk of incident cardiovascular events and death: a systematic review and meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 49: 403-414.
123. Lakka HM, Laaksonen DE, Lakka TA, Niskanen LK, Kumpusalo E, et al. (2002) The metabolic syndrome and total and cardiovascular disease mortality in middle-aged men. *JAMA* 288: 2709-2716.
124. Jenkins DJ, Kendall CW, Marchie A, Faulkner DA, Wong JM, et al. (2003) Effects of a dietary portfolio of cholesterol-lowering foods vs lovastatin on serum lipids and C-reactive protein. *JAMA* 290: 502-510.
125. Harland BF (1989) Dietary fibre and mineral bioavailability. *Nutr Res Rev* 2: 133-147.
126. Torre M, Rodriguez AR, Saura-Calixto F (1991) Effects of dietary fiber and phytic acid on mineral availability. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 30: 1-22.
127. Slavin JL (2005) Dietary fiber and body weight. *Nutrition* 21: 411-418.
128. Jones JM, Reicks M, Adams J, Fulcher G, Weaver G, et al. (2002) The importance of promoting a whole grain foods message. *J Am Coll Nutr* 21: 293-297.
129. McKeown NM, Meigs JB, Liu S, Saltzman E, Wilson PW, et al. (2004) Carbohydrate nutrition, insulin resistance, and the prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in the Framingham Offspring Cohort. *Diabetes Care* 27: 538-546.
130. Sahyoun NR, Jacques PF, Zhang XL, Juan W, McKeown NM (2006) Whole-grain intake is inversely associated with the metabolic syndrome and mortality in older adults. *Am J Clin Nutr* 83: 124-131.
131. Marlett JA, Cheung TF (1997) Database and quick methods of assessing typical dietary fiber intakes using data for 228 commonly consumed foods. *J Am Diet Assoc* 97: 1139-1148, 1151.
132. Behall KM, Schofield DJ, Hallfrisch J (2006) Whole-grain diets reduce blood pressure in mildly hypercholesterolemic men and women. *J Am Diet Assoc* 106: 1445-1449.
133. Isaksson H, Tillander I, Andersson R, Olsson J, Fredriksson H, et al. (2012) Whole grain rye breakfast - sustained satiety during three weeks of regular consumption. *Physiol Behav* 105: 877-884.
134. Katcher HI, Legro RS, Kunselman AR, Gillies PJ, Demers LM, et al. (2008) The effects of a whole grain-enriched hypocaloric diet on cardiovascular disease risk factors in men and women with metabolic syndrome. *Am J Clin Nutr* 87: 79-90.
135. Kim H, Stote KS, Behall KM, Spears K, Vinyard B, et al. (2009) Glucose and insulin responses to whole grain breakfasts varying in soluble fiber, beta-glucan: a dose response study in obese women with increased risk for insulin resistance. *Eur J Nutr* 48: 170-175.
136. Maki KC, Beiseigel JM, Jonnalagadda SS, Gugger CK, Reeves MS, et al. (2010) Whole-grain ready-to-eat oat cereal, as part of a dietary program for weight loss, reduces low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in adults with overweight and obesity more than a dietary program including low-fiber control foods. *J Am Diet Assoc* 110: 205-214.
137. Newby PK, Maras J, Bakun P, Muller D, Ferrucci L, et al. (2007) Intake of whole grains, refined grains, and cereal fiber measured with 7-d diet records and associations with risk factors for chronic disease. *Am J Clin Nutr* 86: 1745-1753.
138. Nilsson AC, Ostman EM, Granfeldt Y, Björck IM (2008) Effect of cereal test breakfasts differing in glycemic index and content of indigestible carbohydrates on daylong glucose tolerance in healthy subjects. *Am J Clin Nutr* 87: 645-654.
139. Visioli F (2011) Nutritional support in the pharmacological treatment of metabolic syndrome. *Eur J Pharmacol* 668 Suppl 1: S43-49.
140. Sánchez D, Quiñones M, Moulay L, Mugerza B, Miguel M, et al. (2011) Soluble fiber-enriched diets improve inflammation and oxidative stress biomarkers in Zucker fatty rats. *Pharmacol Res* 64: 31-35.
141. Delzenne NM, Daubioul C, Neyrinck A, Lasa M, Taper HS (2002) Inulin and oligofructose modulate lipid metabolism in animals: review of biochemical events and future prospects. *Br J Nutr* 87 Suppl 2: S255-259.
142. Delzenne NM, Cani PD, Daubioul C, Neyrinck AM (2005) Impact of inulin and oligofructose on gastrointestinal peptides. *Br J Nutr* 93 Suppl 1: S157-161.
143. Li J, Wang J, Kaneko T, Qin LQ, Sato A (2004) Effects of fiber intake on the blood pressure, lipids, and heart rate in Goto Kakizaki rats. *Nutrition* 20: 1003-1007.
144. Thulesen J, Hartmann B, Nielsen C, Holst JJ, Poulsen SS (1999) Diabetic intestinal growth adaptation and glucagon-like peptide 2 in the rat: effects of dietary fibre. *Gut* 45: 672-678.
145. Venn BJ, Mann JI (2004) Cereal grains, legumes and diabetes. *Eur J Clin Nutr* 58: 1443-1461.
146. Weickert MO, Möhlig M, Schöfl C, Arafat AM, Otto B, et al. (2006) Cereal fiber improves whole-body insulin sensitivity in overweight and obese women. *Diabetes Care* 29: 775-780.
147. Fehily AM, Milbank JE, Yarnell JW, Hayes TM, Kubicki AJ, et al. (1982) Dietary determinants of lipoproteins, total cholesterol, viscosity, fibrinogen, and blood pressure. *Am J Clin Nutr* 36: 890-896.
148. Nilsson TK, Sundell IB, Hellsten G, Hallmans G (1990) Reduced plasminogen activator inhibitor activity in high consumers of fruits, vegetables and root vegetables. *J Intern Med* 227: 267-271.
149. Sundell IB, Rånby M (1993) Oat husk fiber decreases plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1 activity. *Haemostasis* 23: 45-50.
150. Yarnell JW, Fehily AM, Milbank J, Kubicki AJ, Eastham R, et al. (1983) Determinants of plasma lipoproteins and coagulation factors in men from Caerphilly, South Wales. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 37: 137-140.
151. Mennen LI, Witteman JC, den Breeijen JH, Schouten EG, de Jong PT, et al. (1997) The association of dietary fat and fiber with coagulation factor VII in the elderly: the Rotterdam Study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 65: 732-736.